Distinguishing Bulk Redox from Near-Surface Degradation in Lithium Nickel Oxide Cathodes

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ABSTRACT

Ni-rich layered cathodes deliver high energy densities, but uncertainties remain about their charge compensation mechanisms and the degradation processes that limit their cycle life. Recent studies have identified trapped molecular O_2 within LiNi O_2 at high states of charge, as seen for Li-rich cathodes where excess capacity is associated with reversible O^{2−}/O₂ redox. Here we show that bulk redox in LiNiO₂ occurs by Ni-O rehybridization, lowering the electron density on O sites, but without significant involvement of molecular $O₂$. Trapped $O₂$ is predominantly associated with surface degradation through contact with the electrolyte, and is accompanied by Ni reduction. O₂ is removed on discharge, but an excess of $Ni²⁺$ remains forming a reduced surface layer that impedes Li transport. Our findings highlight the importance of separating bulk redox from near-surface degradation, and implicate the instability of delithiated LiNiO₂ in contact with the electrolyte in surface degradation through $O₂$ formation

KEYWORDS Molecular O2, Lithium Nickel Oxide, Reduced Surface Layer, Anion Redox, Core Level Spectroscopy

INTRODUCTION

Layered transition metal oxides, LiMeO₂ (Me = Co, Ni, Mn, Al, etc.), are the cathode materials of choice for commercial high-energy density Li-ion batteries, reversibly intercalating Li over thousands of cycles. 1,2 Ni-rich materials are increasingly favoured as they offer higher capacities, and lower Co content, which is expensive and has ethical concerns around its extraction. ³ In the traditional picture of charge compensation, Li+ removal is compensated by an increase in the formal oxidation state of the redox-active transition metal (TM) centres via single electron transfer. However, it is well-established that there are accompanying changes in Me-O bond covalency meaning both TM and O sites are involved. 4– 7

The archetypal Ni-rich cathode material, LiNiO₂, undergoes several first-order structural phase transitions on delithiation, and at high potentials degradation associated with severe lattice changes,^{8,9} parasitic reactions¹⁰⁻¹², structural degradation^{13,14} and gas evolution^{15,16} become prominent. However the extent of the connections between these different modes of degradation is not yet fully established. There have recently been reports of trapped molecular O₂ formation in LiNiO₂ at high potentials (\geq 4.3V during charge), based on the emergence of a distinct feature in O K-edge resonant inelastic X-ray scattering (RIXS) spectra, corresponding to an excitation energy of ~531.5 eV.¹⁷⁻¹⁹ For Li-rich materials that show excess capacity beyond TM cation redox, this is typically taken as evidence of the involvement of molecular O2 in charge compensation.20 Ni K-edge X-ray absorption Near Edge Structure (XANES) measurements of LiNiO₂ have indicated a plateauing of main edge half-height position at

similarly high states of charge, which has been taken as evidence of the formal Ni oxidation state no longer changing in the bulk, $^{\rm 19}$ and thus a change in the redox mechanism. $^{\rm 21}$

Although O K-edge RIXS and the related fluorescence yield X-ray absorption spectroscopy (FY-XAS) are widely referred to as bulk-sensitive (~200 nm information depth), in the context of Li-ion cathode materials where typical secondary particle diameters are several μm or more, these methods probe <5% of the particle volume nearest to the surface. Attribution of bulk molecular oxygen redox based on these methods alone is therefore ambiguous, whilst reliable comparison to more bulk-sensitive XANES measurements is challenging, motivating the use of more bulk-sensitive probes of O redox.

Here we combine complementary core-loss spectroscopies to obtain a depth-resolved (10nm to $>10 \mu$ m) account of the cation and anion redox processes in LiNiO₂, allowing reversible, bulk redox processes to be distinguished from near-surface degradation. X-ray Raman Spectroscopy (XRS, >10 µm information depth) reveals that in the bulk of LiNiO₂ secondary particles there is a continuous change in both the Ni L_{3,2}-edge and O K-edge spectra with SoC (state of charge) up to 4.8 V, consistent with charge compensation proceeding by rehybridization between the Ni and O centres, lowering the electron density on O sites but with coordination still preserved. Features of trapped molecular O_2 appear at potentials of $\gtrsim 4.2$ V in O K-edge FY-XAS, accompanied by increased $Ni²⁺$ contributions in the Ni L_{3,2}-edge. Importantly, these changes are less pronounced in bulk-averaged XRS measurements indicating a predominantly surface process. Total Electron Yield (TEY) measurements (~10 nm information depth) confirm a densified reduced surface layer (RSL) forms in direct contact with electrolyte, whilst FY measurements are consistent with an extended cation mixing layer in which Ni²⁺ ions have migrated to occupy Li sites between the TM layers. Scanning Transmission Electron Microscopy - Electron Energy Loss Spectroscopy (STEM-EELS) further confirms this picture, showing that the RSL extends ~200 nm into the surface for LiNiO2 which has been cycled to 4.8V vs. Li/Li⁺. This understanding emphasises the importance of strategies to stabilise the interfaces of Ni-rich cathode materials in contact with electrolyte rather than bulk stabilisation approaches (e.g. pillaring) that might sacrifice capacity.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Trends in Chemical State with SoC

Fig. 1 | Bulk-sensitive Probing of LiNiO₂ Redox Processes. a, 2nd cycle charge-discharge profile of LiNiO2 electrode cycled at a rate of C/20 between and 3.0 and 4.8 V vs Li/Li⁺. Inset: SEM image of pristine LiNiO₂ particles. **b**, Corresponding differential capacity plots (dQ/dV). c, Normalised Ni K-edge XANES spectra (transmission mode) of LiNiO₂ at different SoC. d, Plot of the relative shifts in Ni K-edge whiteline and 50% normalised edge height positions. e,f, XRS (~10 μm information depth) of the O K-edge and Ni L3-edge core-loss spectra for LiNiO₂ electrodes at different SoC during the $2nd$ charge cycle. Experimental XRS data is marked in black dots and represented in smooth solid trace lines. See Supplementary Fig. 9 for fitted XRS Ni L_{3,2}-edges using simulated formally Ni²⁺, Ni³⁺, and Ni⁴⁺ L₃-edge spectra from charge transfer multiplet (CTM) calculations.

The charge-discharge profile for the $2nd$ cycle of the composite polycrystalline LiNiO₂ electrode are shown in Fig. 1a. together with an inset showing a scanning electron micrograph (SEM) of the LiNiO₂ active material. In the image \tilde{B} µm diameter spheroidal LiNiO₂ secondary particles are seen being composed of sub-µm primary particles. The voltage profiles show distinct plateaus associated with the first-order structural phase transitions of LiNiO₂ on delithiation, with their potentials apparent as maxima in the dQ/dV plots (Fig. 1b), at potentials consistent with prior literature.²²⁻²⁶ Powder X-ray diffraction (XRD) of the pristine material (see Supplementary Fig. 1) closely resembles the calculated pattern for LiNiO₂ with the $R\overline{3}$ m space group.²⁷ This H1 (hexagonal) phase transitions to a M (monoclinic) phase at \sim 3.67 V, then to the H2 phase at $~4.0$ V, followed by the H3 phase at $~4.2$ V. The voltage profile shows noticeable hysteresis above \sim 4.3 V, with the voltage rapidly dropping from 4.8 V to \sim 4.2 V on discharge. However, the capacity reached at 4.8 V is 256 mAh/g which compares with a maximum theoretical capacity of 264 mAh/g for the LiNiO2, based on the pristine material having $~4$ % Ni excess as determined by inductively coupled plasma-optical emission spectroscopy (ICP-OES). This provides an initial indication that the full capacity of the electrode can be accounted for by Ni redox alone, without obvious excess capacity associated with molecular O₂ redox.

Fig. 1c shows normalised transmission Ni K-edge XANES spectra for the LiNiO₂ electrodes at different states of charge during the $2nd$ charge cycle. As expected, the Ni K-edge shifts to higher energies as the Ni oxidation state increases, as the removal of valence electrons leaves the Ni nucleus less-shielded such that the nucleus has a higher effective charge, and the corelevel becomes more strongly bound. Both the energy of the fractional (normalised) edge height and the position of the whiteline (intensity maximum) are routinely used as indirect measures of average oxidation state.²⁸⁻³⁰ A continuous shift to higher energy in both the edge half-height and whiteline is observed up to 4.2 V, x=0.22 (Fig. 1d). The two trends diverge with further delithiation, with the whiteline monotonically shifting to higher energy up to the furthest measured extent of delithiation (4.8V, x=0.03), while the half-height position plateaus with little variation between x=0.10 and x=0.03. The plateau of half-height position has previously been taken as an indication that Ni is no longer involved in the redox mechanism at high SoC,^{21,31} however the continuing shift in whiteline position would suggests otherwise. Indeed, the edge-position is known to be sensitive to other factors including bond length and ligand covalency.

To resolve this ambiguity without introducing surface sensitivity as a confounding factor, bulk-sensitive X-ray Raman Scattering (XRS) was performed to collect O K-edge (Fig. 1e) and Ni L₃-edge (Fig. 1f) spectra at the same SoC as the XANES. XRS allows low energy O 1s \rightarrow 2p and Ni 2p \rightarrow 3d transitions to be measured using a hard X-ray probe (10 keV), achieving an information depth of \sim 10 µm which is similar to Ni K-edge XANES. In Fig. 1e, pristine LiNiO₂ exhibits a prominent asymmetric O K pre-edge feature centred at 528.8 eV associated with transitions from O 1s→O 2p-Ni 3d hybridised states, and main edge features above 535.0 eV associated with transitions from O 1s→O 2p-Ni 4s,p hybridised states. On delithiation, the pre-edge peak is seen to continuously increase in relative intensity, whilst losing its asymmetry

and shifting by 0.4 eV to a higher peak energy of 529.2 eV. There is also an accompanying shift in the main edge half-height from \sim 536.0 eV for pristine LiNiO₂ up to 539.5 eV at 4.8 V. Importantly, across the potentials probed, the feature arising at \sim 531.5 eV associated with the formation of molecular O2 is not strongly pronounced.¹⁷⁻¹⁹

The corresponding Ni L₃-edge XRS (Fig. 1f) for pristine $LiNiO₂$ shows a broad, nearly trapezoidal line shape composed of three main features at 853.6 eV, 854.9 eV, and 856.1 eV. Although there remains debate over the ground state of $LiNiO₂$ (see supplementary note 1), recent temperature-dependent XAS and X-ray Magnetic Circular Dichroism (XMCD) shows strong evidence for size (spin) disproportionation, 32 in which Ni²⁺ (S=1), Ni³⁺ (S=½), and Ni⁴⁺ (S=0) octahedra coexist and interconvert dynamically at room temperature. These three species are attributable to the 853.6 eV, 854.9 eV, and 856.1 eV features respectively. $^{\rm 33}$ This contrasts with the singular formal $3d^7$ ground-state electron configuration expected for Ni³⁺ within a pure Jahn-Teller formalism, but is consistent with other correlated nickelate compounds, including AgNiO2, which show disproportionation and strong covalency between frontier O 2p and Ni 3d states.^{34–37} Charge transfer multiplet (CTM) calculated L3,2-edges for the three Ni environments are overlaid in Fig. 1f. These simulated spectra can be thought of as a superposition of metal-ligand hole configurations, 38 with the formally Ni²⁺, Ni³⁺, and Ni⁴⁺ octahedra having ground-state configurations of $0.80|3d^8\rangle + 0.19|3d^9L\rangle +$ $0.01|3d^{10}\underline{L}^2$, $0.25|3d^7\rangle + 0.58|3d^8\underline{L}\rangle + 0.16|3d^9\underline{L}^2\rangle + 0.01|3d^{10}\underline{L}^3\rangle$, $0.04|3d^6\rangle +$ $0.33|3d^7L\rangle + 0.48|3d^8L^2\rangle + 0.14|3d^9L^3\rangle + 0.01|3d^{10}L^4\rangle$ respectively. The increasing ligand

hole contributions indicate an increasing degree of Ni-O covalency for higher formal oxidation states. Linear combinations of the simulated spectra match closely to Ni L3-edge XRS spectra (Supplementary Fig. 9).

On cycling to higher potentials, the $Ni⁴⁺$ feature is seen to continuously grow in intensity (see Fig. 2d), initially at the expense of the Ni²⁺ up to 3.9V (x=0.55), and then the Ni³⁺ up to 4.8V (x=0.03). This evolution of Ni species upon delithiation matches that expected from the disproportionation of NiO6 octahedral sizes. 32 At 4.8V, the spectrum closely matches Ni L3edge simulations of Ni⁴⁺ (Supplementary Fig. 4) with up to $4-5%$ concentration of antisite Ni_{Li} and its charge compensation. The bulk sensitivity of XRS suppresses contributions from reduced surface layers which are otherwise seen even for inverse partial fluorescence yield (IPFY) measurements (Supplementary Fig. 2), including for reference Ni4+ compounds. 39,40 Importantly this shows that charge compensation in the LiNiO2 bulk proceeds predominantly through Ni-O rehybridization across the whole cycling range, lowering the electron density on O sites but without a significant role of molecular O₂ redox. This contrasts with several reports of oxygen redox in this potential range for LiNiO₂ and Ni-rich layered cathode materials, based on detection of the molecular O_2 feature with less bulk-sensitive O K-edge RIXS.17,19,41,42

Fig. 2 | Near-surface probing of LiNiO₂ redox processes. a,b, FY-XAS (~200 nm information depth) of the O K-edge and Ni L₃-edge, and c, TEY-XAS (~10 nm information depth) of the Ni L3-edge for LiNiO2 at different SoC. **d**, Relative intensities of Ni²⁺, Ni³⁺, and Ni⁴⁺ components based on fitting CTM calculated spectra to XRS, FY-XAS, and TEY-XAS spectra (see fitting results in Supplementary Fig. S9-11).

To further investigate the origins of molecular O₂ reported at high SoC, the same core levels were measured using soft XAS in FY mode (Fig. 2a,b). The spectra for pristine LiNiO₂ closely resemble those obtained with XRS, however an additional feature is apparent at 532.3 eV in the O K-edge, and the Ni²⁺ feature in the Ni L₃-edge is more intense at 4.8 V. These same features are seen for NiO (see Supplementary Fig. 14), ⁴³ and correspond to a thin (<5 nm) NiO-

like reduced surface layer (RSL),^{44,45} whose contribution is not detected in the more bulksensitive XRS. On delithiation, the XAS data show similar trends to the XRS until 4.1 V $(x=0.33)$, with the Ni L₃-edge showing the Ni⁴⁺ feature increasing at the expense of Ni²⁺, and some growth in the O K pre-edge. At higher SoC there are significant deviations between FY and XRS spectra. Most notably a feature at $\tilde{ }$ 531.5 eV is seen to emerge in the O K-edge, which although initially weak at 4.2V shows significant intensity at 4.8V (see integrated peak areas in Supplementary Fig. 3). This feature corresponds to the same absorption energy as molecular $O₂$, whose vibrational structure has been detected in LiNi $O₂$ and other conventional Ni-rich layered oxides in several recent reports.^{18,19,42} Alongside the emergence of this feature, the growth in the O K pre-edge peak and the $Ni⁴⁺$ feature in the Ni L₃-edge are supressed in FY compared to the XRS, whereas the Ni²⁺ feature grows. This suggests a near-surface molecular oxygen redox process associated with RSL growth, i.e., $NiO₂ \rightarrow NiO_{2-x} + \frac{1}{2}xO₂$. Similar trends are observed with the more surface-sensitive TEY-XAS (fits in Supplementary Fig. 11) consistent with RSL formation proceeding from electrolyte-exposed surfaces.^{44,46}

Fig. 3a shows that after cycling back down from an upper cutoff voltage (UCV) of 4.8 V to 4.0 V, already the molecular O_2 feature at ~531.5 eV disappears from the O K-edge, but a prominent RSL feature at 532.6 eV emerges. On cycling down to 3.0 V, the RSL feature further grows in intensity relative to the pre-edge feature, and accompanying increases in the $Ni²⁺$ feature are observed in the Ni L3-edge spectra (Fig. 3b,c). This is even more prominent in the surface-sensitive TEY-XAS (Fig. 3c), indicating densification of the RSL near to the surface. Comparison to an electrode where the UCV is 4.2 V confirms that the extent of RSL formation is much greater for the UCV of 4.8V, consistent with previous studies where significant RSL formation occurs at SoC above the H2-H3 transition in Ni-rich cathodes.^{44,46-48} This highlights a key connection between the formation of trapped molecular O_2 and the increase in Ni²⁺ species near the cathode surface.

Fig. 3 | Discharge behaviour of LiNiO₂. a,b, FY-XAS (~200 nm information depth) of the O K-edge and Ni L₃-edge, and c, TEY-XAS (~10 nm information depth) of the Ni L₃-edge for LiNiO₂ cycled to a UCV of 4.2 V before being discharged to (i) 4.0 V and (ii) 3.0V, with parallel samples continued cycling to a higher UCV of 4.8 V and then back to (iii) 4.0 V and

(iv) 3.0V respectively.

Fig. 4 | a, Cross-sectional scanning electron microscopy (secondary electron detection) of LiNiO₂ particle from an electrode charged to 4.8 V. b, Selected STEM-EELS scan area of 1.5 µm from surface to bulk (left to right) of the particle. c,d, Fitted peak ratios of depth-resolved Ni L3- and O K-edge EELS spectra using a simplified two peak fit in each case . Insets: examples of fitted EELS spectra.

Although comparison of TEY and FY mode XAS confirms the RSL is found predominantly near the sample surface, it provides only limited insight into the depth over which it is distributed. In order to spatially resolve the extent of the RSL at high SoCs, scanning transmission electron microscopy - electron energy loss spectroscopy (STEM-EELS) was performed for 4.8 V LiNiO₂ (x=0.03) sample (Fig. 4). Depth-resolved Ni L₃- spectra of charged 4.8 V LiNiO2 show an increasing proportion of the higher energy (more oxidised) component on moving towards the bulk of the particle, stabilising at ~200nm from surface, consistent with more Ni^{2+} species at the surface and more Ni^{4+} in the bulk. Similarly the O K-edge EELS shows a higher pre-edge intensity towards the bulk of the particle correlating with higher Ni oxidation state and Ni-O covalency. ⁴⁹ This extended RSL region where the Ni oxidation state is seen to vary over ~200 nm, is consistent with the differences seen between TEY-XAS, FY-XAS and XRS observations. Notably, a similar extent of RSL formation is not observed at intergranular cracks away from the LiNiO₂ surface, presumably as electrolyte does not fully penetrate these cracks for the low cycle numbers considered here. This indicates a key role of the electrolyte in promoting RSL formation, with electrolyte infiltration into internal cracks likely proceeding over multiple cycles.

- LiNiO₂

Energy (eV)

 \mathfrak{S} 2.05

 2.00

1.95

1.90

1.85

 1.0

 0.8

Vi-O distance

 \bullet Ni-O fit

 0.2

 $\overline{0.6}$ $\overline{0.4}$
x in Li×NiO2

 0.6

Ni-O calculated

Ni-Ni di:

RELICE

2.86

2.84 ➢

 2.82 ۸ \mathbf{x}

 2.80

 0.0

Intensity (a.u.)

 525 530 535 540 545 550

8360

 $-NiO₂$

LiNiO₂

8340

Intensity (a.u.)

8330

Fig. 5 | Electronic and Structural Changes of LiNiO₂ upon delithiation. a, Experimental HERFD-XANES and b, core-hole calculated Ni K-edge spectra of pristine and charged LiNiO2. c, Experimental XRS with smooth trace lines and d, core-hole calculated O K-edge spectra of pristine and charged LiNiO₂. e, Ground-state partial and total density of states for LiNiO₂ (top) and NiO2 (bottom). Fermi energies are set to zero. f, Ni-Ni and Ni-O bond distances determined from the Fourier-transformed EXAFS spectra of Fig. 1c. Note that the short/long Ni-O lengths of pristine (hexagons) and 3.0 V (crosses) LiNiO2 are related to the size-disproportionated model applied for EXAFS fitting. Bond lengths for the P21/c structure used for DFT calculations in (b,d,e) are shown as "calculated" in (f).

Having shown that bulk redox in LiNiO₂ occurs by Ni-O rehybridization, we now consider further the associated changes in geometric and electronic structure. Fig. 5a shows highenergy-resolution fluorescence detection (HERFD-)XANES Ni K-edge spectra of pristine LiNiO₂ and after cycling to 4.8V. Notably the main edge half-height position is shifted $\tilde{}$ 2.1 eV higher in energy compared to LiNiO₂, a more distinct change than that seen in the transmission mode measurements of Fig. 1c ($\tilde{1}$.5 eV), as a result of the fine-structure features along the rising edge now being better resolved. Fig. 5c compares the similarly bulk-sensitive experimental O K-edge XRS spectra of the same samples. Since we can anticipate that differing Ni-O bond lengths are likely to yield different signatures in the O K pre-edge, in any model of the material, we chose the zigzag $P2₁/c$ structure for LiNiO₂ spectral calculations. Density functional theory (DFT) calculated Ni and O K-edge spectra for LiNiO₂ and NiO₂ (Fig. 5b,d), reproduce the features of the experimental spectra extremely well, showing the same pre-edge peaks, number of fine structure features, and similar trends in intensity and linewidths across the whole spectral range. The relative energy shifts are also captured well, giving confidence in the sufficiency of the chosen structure models (P21/c for LiNiO₂, and R $\overline{3}$ m for NiO₂).

The origin of the spectral features can be understood by comparison to ground-state partial density-of-states (pDOS) shown in Fig. 5e, and consideration of the allowed spectroscopic transitions. The first unoccupied states in both $LiNiO₂$ and $NiO₂$ lie just above 0 eV, showing mixed O 2p and Ni 3d orbital character and giving rise to the pre-edge peaks in the Ni (~8335 eV) and O (~529 eV) K-edges. A sizable gap separates the next set of unoccupied states which give rise to the main edges in the Ni (\gtrsim 8340 eV) and O (\gtrsim 55 eV) K-edges, and have Ni 4s,p character, with some Li 2s contribution also seen in this region for LiNiO2. This gap widens by \tilde{C} 2.9 eV from LiNiO₂ to NiO₂ which can be related to decrease in average Ni-O bond length associated with the change in geometric structure.^{50,51} We note that the DFT calculated Ni Kedge spectra show weaker pre-edge features than experiment, attributable to quadrupolar transitions not being considered in the calculations.⁵²

The XRS O K pre-edge becomes far more intense in the 4.8V sample and the peak splitting in calculated spectrum of $NiO₂$ is lost, forming a single symmetric peak. This is consistent with the increased ligand hole contributions for the Ni⁴⁺ octahedra from the CTM calculations, which indicates an increasing degree of Ni-O covalency on delithiation. A clear splitting of the O K pre-edge peak in the calculation for $P21/c$ LiNiO₂ resembles the asymmetric pre-edge in the experimental data. This corresponds with the change from D_{4h} symmetry for the J-T distorted Ni³⁺ octahedra used in the calculation, where d orbital splitting arises from the elongation of two Ni-O bonds, to O_h symmetry for the Ni⁴⁺ octahedra of NiO₂, where this d orbital splitting is lost. The growth in intensity of the O K pre-edge feature by a factor of \sim 2 on full delithiation (see Supplementary Fig. 3) is consistent with an increase in covalency and therefore ligand holes, corresponding closely with a factor of \sim 1.8 obtained based on the proportions of Ni species fitted to the Ni L3,2-edge XRS spectra (Fig. 2d) and their respective electron configurations. Further evidence for increased Ni-O covalency on delithiation is apparent from the emergence of more distinct fine-structure features (~8347 eV and 8351 eV) in the Ni K-edge, attributable to LMCT shakedown transitions,^{53,54} as well as satellite peaks in the Ni L3,2-edge that are most clearly seen FY measurements (see Supplementary Fig. 8b) and well-reproduced in the CTM calculated Ni⁴⁺ spectrum. Moreover, Bader charge analysis based on the ground-state DFT calculations shows the ionic charge of the Ni only modestly changes from $+1.41$ to $+1.56$ e between the P2 $1/c$ LiNiO₂ and R $\overline{3}$ m NiO₂ structures, whilst a more significant change from -1.15 to -0.78 e is seen for the O charges.

Fig. 5f shows the nearest Ni-O and Ni-Ni distance extracted by fitting to EXAFS spectra for the LiNiO₂ at different SoC. Since single Ni-O bond length model fit showed significantly higher Debye-Waller factors for close to fully lithiated samples, a size-disproportionated model (58:42 ratio of short:long Ni-O bonds) was instead used for pristine and 3.0 V LiNiO2 (see Supplementary Fig. 7, Supplementary Table 2). The Ni-O and Ni-Ni bond lengths thus obtained show good agreement with the extracted structural parameters of geometry optimised structures from our DFT calculation (P21/c LiNiO2).

Similar trends in weighted average Ni-O bond lengths are seen to *operando* neutron diffraction measurements, ⁵⁵ with Ni-O bond length gradually shrinking in line with the change in structure and increased oxidation state and covalency at high SoC. Notably, above the H2-H3 transition ($x \le 0.22$) a modest increase in the Ni-O bond length is observed. This has been associated with a loss of the stabilising effect of Li-O covalency at high SoC, leading to Ni-O bond elongation alongside the sudden c-lattice collapse related to the H2-H3 transition, and increased charge transfer from the O to Ni sites. 56–59 This changing covalency, seen as continuous spectral changes in Fig. 1c,d, can account for the plateauing in half-height position of the Ni K main-edge at high SoC in transmission XANES (Fig. 1d). As well as highlighting

the limitations of applying a single metric to assess changes in oxidation state, the limited sensitivity of the Ni K-edge fractional-edge height, reflects that it arises from transitions to Ni 4s,p states, in contrast to the O K- and Ni L_{3,2}-edges which probe transitions to O 2p-Ni 3d hybridised states.

Bulk Charge Compensation Mechanism and Surface Degradation

Fig. 6 | Schematic representation of pristine and delithiated LiNiO₂ particles. The differences on LiNiO₂ delithiation occurring at the surface and in the bulk, including the accommodation of trapped O_2 in pores formed near the surface by Ni^{2+} species migrating to the Li layer. Continuous oxidation of Ni in bulk LiNiO₂ at high SoC is distinguished from the near surface degradation. The averaged bulk and near surface Ni oxidation state of pristine $LiNiO₂$ are marked with hexagons.

In summary, bulk sensitive XRS measurements reveal that in the bulk of $LiNiO₂$, charge compensation occurs by Ni-O rehybridization. From an initially size disproportionated structure where $\rm Ni^{2+}$, $\rm Ni^{3}$, and $\rm Ni^{4+}$ octahedra coexist, the $\rm Ni^{4+}$ feature of the $\rm Ni$ $\rm L_{3,2}$ -edge is seen to continuously grow, initially at the expense of Ni²⁺ and subsequently Ni³⁺ features (see Figure 6). There is a concomitant increase in O K pre-edge intensity, consistent with significant lowering of electron-density on the O sites at high SoC, where Oloss is expected.^{40,60} However, significant signatures of molecular $O₂$ formation are not detected throughout the bulk suggesting its formation remains kinetically hindered. 61

FY measurements reveal evidence of molecular O_2 formation in the outer $\tilde{O}200$ nm of the cathode surface, with the growth in intensity of the $Ni⁴⁺$ feature plateauing above 4.2 V, and features of trapped molecular O_2 emerging alongside increased $Ni²⁺$ contributions. This is consistent with molecular O_2 becoming produced in voids formed by $Ni²⁺$ entering the Li layers (see Fig. 6). STEM-EELS reveals a RSL that extends over \tilde{C} 200 nm into the LiNiO₂ surface following cycling to 4.8 V, and shows a gradual change in oxidation state across its thickness consistent with the formation of a cation disordered phase. The absence of such an extended RSL at internal surfaces of the secondary cathode particles, e.g. interparticle cracks, suggests formation of the extended cation disordered phase is driven by contact with the electrolyte.

The trapped molecular O_2 feature disappears on discharging to 4.0 V, but a significantly increased near-surface Ni²⁺ contribution is retained. Although our results do not fully exclude some reversible molecular O₂ redox, online electrochemical mass spectroscopy (OEMS) studies have also reported O2 evolution occurring on discharge, 62 which we suggest may arise from trapped O2 release associated with the structural changes occurring on discharging as a result of abrupt c lattice expansion, including particle cracking (Supplementary Fig. 5).

Our findings highlight the need for bulk-sensitive studies to fully confirm the extent to which molecular O₂-redox processes in cathode materials are bulk phenomena that contribute to excess capacity, rather than surface-mediated degradation. The understanding developed of the surface instability of NiO2 associated with rehybridisation at high SoC, emphasises the importance of strategies such as cathode coatings, and changes in electrolyte formulation in order to stabilise Ni-rich cathode surfaces in contact with electrolyte, rather than bulk stabilisation approaches (e.g. pillaring) that might unduly sacrifice capacity.

METHODS

Sample Preparation

Commercial grade LiNiO₂ powder was obtained from BASF, without any deliberate doping or coating added. Free-standing electrodes were prepared by calendaring the mixture of 80 wt% LiNiO₂ powder, 10 wt% conductive acetylene black and 10 wt% polytetrafluoroethylene (PTFE) binder. Electrochemical tests of the LiNiO2 cathodes were performed in 2032 coin cells (316 stainless steel, Cambridge Energy Solutions) using Li metal disks as negative electrodes and borosilicate glass fibre separators (borosilicate, GF/A, Whatman) soaked with 120 μL LP57 electrolyte (1M LiPF6 in 3:7 of EC:EMC). The assembled cells were charged up to 4.2 V and back to 3.0 V at $C/20$ (calculated based on a theoretical capacity of LiNiO₂ of 275mAh/g), followed by a second charge up to different voltages at C/20. All potentials mentioned in this work are referenced to Li/Li+ .

Electron Microscopy

A Thermo Scientific Helios G4 CXe Plasma FIB (PFIB) was used to prepare the STEM lamellae. For lift-out, a thin Pt layer was deposited onto the surface region of interest (ROI), trenches were patterned around the ROI to make 4μ m-thick lamellae. A W needle was then used to lift each lamella and place them on a FIB lift-out grid (Cu, Agar Scientific). Each lamellae was then thinned down to around 50nm thick for STEM-EELS and polished with a low dose, low energy beam (<0.3 nA, 5kV) to minimise ion beam damage. Inert transfer between PFIB and an Ar glovebox was achieved using a Gatan iLoad system.

Spatially resolved electron energy loss spectroscopy (EELS) of the lamellae was performed using a JEOL ARM200F equipped with cold field emission gun operated at 200 kV and spherical aberration probe corrector. Dual EELS was acquired using a Gatan GIF Quantum 965 ER with energy resolution of around 1eV at 0.25eV/channel dispersion. Inert transfer between glovebox and STEM was achieved using a JEOL double-tilt vacuum transfer holder.

Given LiNiO₂ is less stable when highly delithiated, radiation damage should be considered when evaluating the oxidation state of Ni in EELS. The energised Xe ion beam in PFIB and electron beam in STEM can both induce reduction of LiNiO₂ and NiO₂ towards NiO.⁶³ Low doses of for STEM-EELS study of 3×10 3 e⁻/Å 2 were used, the absolute A2/A1, and B2/B1 ratios seen in the LiNiO₂ bulk reflect some degree of ion/electron beam induced reduction. Nevertheless, equal acquisition time and constant electron beam current during the EELS scans ensure a consistent radiation dose such that the trends in EELS spectra and the spatial variations seen near their surface are still valid.

X-ray Spectroscopy

Transmission Ni K-edge XANES and EXAFS spectra were collected with a laboratory-based easyXAFS300+ spectrometer (easyXAFS, WA, US). X-rays are generated with a liquid-cooled Ag anode X-ray tube, before monochromation by a Si (551) spherically bent crystal analyser. A helium-filled box with polyimide windows is placed in the beam path for better X-ray transparency while a steel plate with a 9×3 mm slot is placed after each sample to lower the background. The transmitted intensity is measured with an SDD detector (KETEK, Munich, Germany) placed behind the sample. Each acquisition was performed over 45 min and 30 scans were collected for each sample to obtain good statistics. NiO reference spectra were also collected for each batch of measurements for energy calibration. Data pre-processing was performed with the EasyXANES package to convert the measured intensity into linear attenuation coefficient, μ. EXAFS data reduction and analysis were performed using the Demeter package (version: 0.9.26).

HERFD-XANES measurements were collected at the I20 (scanning branch) beamline at Diamond Light Source. A four-bounce Si (111) monochromator is employed for incident Xray energy selection. The [444] reflection off the three Si (111) spherically bent crystal analysers (bending radius of 1 m) from the multi-crystal spectrometer was used for the selection of Ni K $\beta_{1,3}$ emission line (approximately 8266 eV).

TEY and FY XAS measurements were performed at ES-2 of beamline B07-B at Diamond Light Source, with the exit slits set to 50 μm in the dispersive direction, yielding a flux of between 1×10^{11} (O K-edge) and 2×10^{11} (Ni L_{3,2}-edge) photons/s. All samples were measured with the incident beam normal to the electrode surface, yielding a beam footprint of 150×100 μm. FY measurements were acquired using an Al coated Si photodiode directed at the sample with its surface normal at 45° to incident beam direction. Simultaneous TEY measurements were obtained using a SR570 low-noise current amplifier (Stanford Research Systems) to collect the current between the sample plate and an isolated steel washer in front of the sample biased to +90 V. Separate IPFY XAS measurements of the Ni L_{3,2}-edge were acquired using a Vortex silicon drift detector (Hitachi) at the I10 beamline, Diamond Light Source (Harwell),

with FY and TEY measurements simultaneously acquired. All spectra are divided by the drain current measured from the last X-ray mirror, to correct for variations in incident photon flux. The photon energy scale is calibrated using a NiO sample. ⁶⁴ O K-edge spectra are backgroundsubtracted using a straight line fitted to the pre-edge region, followed by intensity normalization to the post-edge region at 550 eV. Ni L_{3,2}-edge spectra are normalized to the intensity at 867eV after removal of a linear background.

XRS measurements were performed at the European Synchrotron Radiation Facility at the ID20 beamline. ⁶⁵ X-rays are generated from three U26 revolver undulators, before being collimated, and then monochromated by a liquid-nitrogen cooled double-crystal Si(111) premonochromator. The beam from a second Si(311) channel-cut post-monochromator is focussed onto a \sim 20×20 μ m² spot at the sample position by a mirror in Kirkpatrick-Baez geometry. The sample surface was positioned at a grazing angle of ~1° relative to the incident beam direction, to maximise the illuminated area and the sample was scanned over a region of ~10 mm during the 4-hour measurement to minimise beam-induced changes. Inelastically scattered photons were recorded using 72 spherically bent Si(660) crystal analyser with energy loss events in the vicinity of both O K-edge and Ni L_{3,2}-edge. O K- and Ni L_{3,2}-edges were recorded at momentum transfers of $q=6.9\pm0.5$, and all data extraction and treatment were performed as described in ref 67.⁶⁶

Charge-Transfer Multiplet Calculations

Ni L3,2-edge multiplet simulations were performed at the ligand field level of theory using the many-body code, Quanty.⁶⁷ This was implemented using the same single-cluster NiO₆ Hamiltonian as Green et al.,⁶⁸ where Ni 2p, Ni 3d ligand shells are explicitly included (see full detail in Supplementary Note 3). For all calculations, Slater integrals are scaled to 80% and 85% for the initial and final Hamiltonians respectively. Additionally, onsite ligand energy shifts of $T_{pp}=\pm 0.75$ eV were applied to the ligand orbitals of $e_g (+)$ and $t_{2g} (-)$ symmetry.

Parameters used in Ni²⁺ calculation (eV): $\Delta = 5.5$, $10D_q = 0.71$, $V_{eq} = 2.627$, $V_{t2q} = 1.524$.

Parameters used in Ni³⁺ calculation (eV): Δ = -0.5, 10 D_q = 0.93 with Jahn-Teller splitting of Δ_{eg} = 0.15 and Δ_{t2g} = 0.10 where Δ_{eg} is the difference between the $x^2 - y^2$ and $3x^2 - r^2$ onsite energies and Δ_{t2g} is the difference between the xy and xz/yz onsite energies, $V_{3z^2-r^2}$ = 2.43, $V_{x^2-y^2} = 3.33$, $V_{xz/yz} = 1.41$, $V_{xy} = 1.93$.

Parameters used in Ni⁴⁺ calculation (eV): Δ = -6.5, 10 D_q = 0.78, V_{eg} = 3.456, V_{t2q} = =2.004.

DFT Spectral Calculations

Density functional theory (DFT) calculations were carried out using the plane wave pseudopotential code CASTEP.69 The Perdew-Burke-Ernzerhof (PBE) form of the generalized gradient approximation functional,⁷⁰ with the addition of the G06 semi-empirical dispersion correction⁷¹ to better account for van der Waals forces. The P21/c "zig-zag" Jahn-Teller distorted structure for LiNiO₂, and the $R\overline{3}m$ structure for NiO₂ were used to represent the pristine LiNiO₂ and fully delithiated materials respectively.⁷² Each structure was initially geometry optimised using appropriate plane wave cut-off energies (900 eV) and k-points (0.03 \AA ⁻¹ k-point spacing) determined via convergence of the total energy. The geometry of the system was considered optimized when the maximum forces on the ions were below 0.001 eV/Å for NiO₂ and 0.01eV /Å for LiNiO₂ consistent with other studies.^{72,73} Calculations of the pDOS and core-hole spectra were subsequently performed. The energy scale of the ground-state pDOS assumes the material is an insulator and sets the fermi energy, Ef, to zero. Since core orbitals are not treated explicitly in the pseudopotential method, a unique pseudopotential is generated for an excited atom possessing a core-hole. For O and Ni K-edges, a core-hole is placed on the O 1s or Ni 1s orbitals respectively. A supercell is generated to prevent interactions between neighbouring core-holes. For spectral calculations, the plane wave energy cut-off, k-point sampling and cell size were increased until no visible effect on the spectrum was seen. Spectral calculations were handled using the Optados programme.⁷⁴ Lorentzian broadening was performed using full widths at half maximum of 0.14 and 0.8 eV for the O and Ni K-edges respectively, which should reflect the lifetimes of radiative and nonradiative transitions. 75,76 The Gaussian component was then adjusted as a free parameter to best present the data but remained fixed for the same edges to allow for comparison. The Lorentzian component is given energy dependence to account for the energy dependence of the lifetime. This was done by summing the set width with a factor that varies linearly with energy as implemented in Optados. The calculated spectra were rigidly shifted to align with the first absorption peaks of the experimental data to allow better comparison. In cases where the system under investigation possessed more than one inequivalent excitation site, separate spectra were generated, energy aligned⁷⁷ and combined before rigidly shifting.

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ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

The authors acknowledge funding from the Faraday Institution (faraday.ac.uk; EP/S003053/1, FIRG001, FIRG007, FIRG008, FIRG016, FIRG024) and the European Research Council (ERC) under the European Union's Horizon 2020 research and innovation programme (EXISTAR, grant agreement No. 950598) and under the Marie Sklodowska-Curie Actions (ISOBEL, grant agreement No. 101032281). We acknowledge support from the Engineering and Physical Science Research Council (EPSRC) through grants EP/K040375/1, EP/L022907/1, EP/T001038/1, and EP/R010145/1 (Henry Royce Institute). R.J.G. acknowledges funding from Natural Sciences and Engineering Research Council of Canada (NSERC). R.A.H. acknowledges funding from the Royal Academy of Engineering under the Research Fellowship scheme. R.S.W. acknowledges a CAMS-UK Fellowship through the Analytical Chemistry Trust Fund and a UKRI Future Leaders Fellowship (MR/V024558/1). We acknowledge access to the David Cockayne Centre for Electron Microscopy. We thank Diamond Light Source for beamtime on beamlines B07B, I10, and I20 under proposals SI33283, MM33062, and SP32010. We acknowledge the European Synchrotron Radiation Facility (ESRF) for provision of synchrotron radiation facilities under proposal MA-5753 and thank Blanka Detlefs for assistance and support in using beamline ID20.

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